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Quantifying behavior to understand the brain

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Abstract

Over the past years, numerous methods have emerged to automate the quantification of animal behavior at a resolution not previously imaginable. This has opened up a new field of computational ethology and will, in the near future, make it possible to quantify in near completeness what an animal is doing as it navigates its environment. The importance of improving the techniques with which we characterize behavior is reflected in the emerging recognition that understanding behavior is an essential (or even prerequisite) step to pursuing neuroscience questions. The use of these methods, however, is not limited to studying behavior in the wild or in strictly ethological settings. Modern tools for behavioral quantification can be applied to the full gamut of approaches that have historically been used to link brain to behavior, from psychophysics to cognitive tasks, augmenting those measurements with rich descriptions of how animals navigate those tasks. Here we review recent technical advances in quantifying behavior, particularly in methods for tracking animal motion and characterizing the structure of those dynamics. We discuss open challenges that remain for behavioral quantification and highlight promising future directions, with a strong emphasis on emerging approaches in deep learning, the core technology that has enabled the markedly rapid pace of progress of this field. We then discuss how quantitative descriptions of behavior can be leveraged to connect brain activity with animal movements, with the ultimate goal of resolving the relationship between neural circuits, cognitive processes and behavior.

Tracking, from coarse to fine

Quantitative descriptions of behavior begin by tracking movements. In this section we describe the computational tools for extracting measurements of animal motion from video recordings and the challenges associated with capturing progressively more detailed descriptions such as pose (Fig. 1a).

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Animal centroids, ellipses and identities.

At its coarsest, animal behavior can be quantified by estimating the position of its centroid (i.e., the midpoint or the center of mass) over time. These centroid trajectories, quantified as sequences of image coordinates, reflect the motion of an animal within its environment and can be used to measure spatial navigation or locomotion behavior. The centroid treats the animal as a single point, which fails to capture its heading, but this description can be augmented by finding the major and minor axes of an ellipse encircling the animal (Fig. 1b). This is a conveniently universal description, as most animals with a CNS share a similar body plan, in which a spinal or ventral nerve cord forms a line at the center of an elongated body.

Classical approaches to estimating centroids and ellipses primarily relied on background subtraction, an algorithm that identifies the image pixels belonging to the animal (i.e., the foreground) from which the centroid can be computed by finding the midpoint of their coordinates. When the background contrasts with the animal, such as in backlit arenas, background subtraction can be performed through simple thresholding of the image intensity. If the background is static, it can be modeled by finding the median image frame; however, this fails often if the animal does not move for prolonged periods of time. Classical approaches employ robust algorithms to model the background[1], but newer methods have begun to use deep learning to better deal with more complex backgrounds, affording the ability to track animals in more naturalistic conditions[2].

Extending ellipse tracking to multiple animals adds even more richness to behavioral descriptions, where quantities such as relative distances and orientations can be used to infer complex social interactions. For example, close interactions that occur during aggression or courtship may be detectable using the distance between centroids, while the relative angle between animals can indicate the directedness of the behavior, such as chasing.

Assuming centroids or ellipses can be detected reliably within individual images, the multi-animal setting introduces the particularly challenging problem of estimating identity, i.e., the task of associating animal detections correctly over time (Fig. 1c). In the broader domain of multi-object tracking, the most common approach to the identity assignment problem is tracking by detection, in which objects (for example, animals) are detected within single images and then subsequently linked together across frames. These algorithms must contend with challenging cases such as objects occluding one another, disappearing for periods of time or failing to be detected in the first stage. We refer the reader to previous reviews for more in-depth analyses of classical multi-animal tracking methodology[3-5].

Modern approaches to multi-animal tracking typically address the association problem by modeling the appearance and/or motion of the animals. This allows for identity association by matching new detections to previous tracks based on their similarity to the modeled features. Motion models will typically make constant velocity assumptions to enable extrapolation from past trajectories[6]. These types of models will often fail when animals are closely (socially) interacting with each other, as is common in multi-animal experiments. Techniques that leverage machine learning to model appearance may rely on artificial distinguishing visual features, such as painting the animals' fur with unique patterns[7] or

using a different colored tag for each animal[8]. Some approaches may rely on combining videography with implanted radio-frequency identification (RFID) tags, enabling reliable and wireless identification for highly robust tracking, making them particularly well-suited for monitoring behavior over longer timescales[9]. These potentially invasive manipulations, however, may be prohibitively laborious when using many animals and may hinder the ethological validity of experiments intended to measure natural behavior[10].

Although identity association in multi-object tracking remains an open problem, the state-of-the-art techniques now rely on deep learning for learning distinguishable appearance features without artificial markers[11]. A common approach is to employ a technique known as contrastive learning: the objective is to find a mapping in which images with the same identity are closer to each other than to images with different identities; this is the basis of modern facial recognition systems[12] and has also been applied to animal facial recognition[13]. In the domain of animal tracking, this approach has been demonstrated to be highly effective with socially behaving animals in complex environments[14,15]. Despite their impressive performance, the downside to these methods is that they typically require more training data to adapt to new animals, new imaging conditions and new experimental settings. This requirement is particularly burdensome, because manual annotation of animal identities over video frames can be prohibitively laborious as it may require annotators to step through the video frame-by-frame to ensure they do not mislabel animals when they are closely interacting. Some approaches to ameliorate this bootstrap the labeling using classical tracking for self-supervised learning[14], and advances in unsupervised learning may soon enable fully automated deep-learning-based tracking without previous annotations[16].

Animal pose estimation.

Centroid and ellipse tracking, though highly descriptive, fail to capture the movements of limbs and appendages and consequently cannot be used to detect behaviors such as grooming, rearing, tapping and locomotor coordination. Animal pose, on the other hand, is represented by the location of all of its body-part landmarks (typically at the skeleton joints). Pose estimation is able to capture nearly all of the degrees of freedom of body motion—and by extension, the degrees of freedom that the brain can actuate via its motor system.

Human pose estimation has long been studied, both from the perspective of biological motion perception[17,18], i.e., how humans and animals perceive the motion of other organisms, and from the engineering point of view, i.e., the design of algorithms to retrieve pose[19]. While the former provides a theoretical grounding for the use of pose as a biologically relevant representation of behavior—particularly in social contexts—the latter has enabled accurate and automated pose estimation from conventional videography.

State-of-the-art deep-learning-based approaches to human pose estimation have drastically improved accuracy over classical methods, owing to the effectiveness of neural networks for computer vision tasks in general, but more specifically due to the development of the heatmap (also referred to as confidence map; Fig. 2a) representation of landmark locations[20-22]. This representation encodes the location of each landmark as the density function of a two-dimensional (2D) Gaussian distribution centered on the ground-truth image coordinates of each landmark, i.e., a heatmap image in which the brightest pixel is at

the location of the landmark within the image. This representation is particularly well-suited for convolutional neural networks (CNNs), which excel at learning complex transformations of image patches. Pose estimation CNNs are trained to predict heatmaps from input images by learning from labeled examples where the ground truth landmark coordinates are known, enabling the correct heatmaps to be computed for comparison with the CNN's prediction. Once trained, the landmark coordinates on unlabeled images can be decoded from the predicted heatmaps via peak detection.

Although conceptually there is no difference between human and animal heatmaps, the biggest challenge to adapting the deep-learning-based approach to animal pose estimation is the need for labeled training data. To enable human pose estimation 'in the wild' that generalizes to arbitrary viewpoints, illumination, body sizes, clothing and other variability in image features, the computer vision community has generated datasets with sizes ranging from tens of thousands to millions of labeled images[23-25]. Efforts to generate these employed crowdsourcing and required thousands of hours of manual labor, but these costs are amortized over time, as human anatomy is static. In contrast, a CNN that is trained to locate human hands would not be able to generalize to predict insect leg tips.

To address the labeling problem, three main approaches have been employed to enable pose estimation for new animals when no training data is available: transfer learning and efficient neural network design. The first of these, transfer learning, formed the basis and main contribution of the widely used animal pose estimation software DeepLabCut[26]. Transfer learning is a widely used method for reducing the need for large datasets; it works by reusing the parameters (and therefore visual feature detectors) learned in CNNs trained on a broader set of natural images (typically ImageNet[27]). This relies on the assumption that reducing the need for learning general-purpose visual features, such as oriented edges and textured patches, will facilitate fine-tuning the parameters of the network with less training data. This approach is a topic of active research in computer vision, and recent empirical studies have reported conflicting results on its advantages for general computer vision tasks[28,29] and for animal pose estimation[30,31].

In contrast, the second approach formed the primary contributions of the LEAP software framework[32] and was improved upon in DeepPoseKit[33]. Efficient neural network design, in which the CNN architecture is kept small, has fewer parameters to tune than the general-purpose architectures normally used in transfer learning[34]. This reduction is justified by the assumption that variability of imaging conditions in animal behavioral data is relatively low —a foundational feature of reproducible laboratory experimental design—and therefore requires lower representational capacity. The added benefit of designing neural networks to the needs of the data is that it is considerably faster to train and predict, making human-in-the-loop training more efficient, but this approach may not be as well suited to the prediction of animal pose in less constrained, non-laboratory settings.

Active learning, closely related to human-in-the-loop training[35], is a technique that can drastically reduce the time required for generating large datasets by proposing images to label that are representative of diverse data features; these can then be used to train CNNs with a small number of very distinct images. After training with few labels and generating

predictions on unlabeled data, new labels can be generated by simply correcting the predictions, iteratively reducing the time required to label with every training loop. This approach has been adopted by all major animal pose estimation frameworks to reduce the effort required to label new datasets.

The success and accessibility of these methods have spurred a revolution in fields dealing with animal movement, from neuroscience[36] to ecology[37]. Future research in animal pose estimation will continue to reduce the need for labeled data through the use of techniques such as self-supervised learning and domain adaptation[38-41] and to improve the precision of landmark localization by incorporating temporal information without new labels[42,43].

Animal pose estimation in three dimensions.

For many animals, 2D pose estimation will be insufficient to capture all body landmarks, as some will typically be occluded in any single fixed viewpoint. This issue is especially compounded in highly deformable animals such as mice whose skeleton landmarks may be difficult to localize through fur[44] and during out-of-plane behaviors such as rearing. The standard approach to three-dimensional (3D) pose estimation, then, is to record behavior using multiple cameras arranged such that they collectively capture all of the landmarks of interest across viewpoints (Fig. 1e).

The standard approach to 3D pose estimation consists of three steps: 2D pose estimation, triangulation and refinement (Fig. 2b). The 2D pose estimation step is typically performed as described for the monocular case, but 3D animal pose estimation frameworks will often leverage the ability to map points from one view to another to reduce the labeling effort[45,46]. The triangulation step is preceded by a one-time calibration procedure, in which an object with distinct features (typically a checkerboard-like pattern[47]) is used to compute the camera calibration matrices that enable projection of 2D points in the image plane to consistent 3D world coordinates. In practice, triangulation is noisy, so some form of refinement is typically employed to eliminate false detections and resolve inconsistencies in projections of the same point from different views. Tools for 3D animal pose estimation have employed a variety of approaches to refinement, such as incorporating constraints on the geometry of the animal's body (for example, limb lengths)[45,46], temporal smoothing[48] or parametric shape modeling[49,50]. The rapid pace of progress in 3D animal pose estimation is likely to yield a series of advances in the coming years; the 3D human pose estimation field provides an outlook on what's to come, in particular, lifting from monocular 2D[51], which will reduce the technical challenges associated with multicamera animal behavioral setups[52].

While 3D landmark localization helps to improve the completeness of behavioral representations, it may still fail to capture movement of non-rigid parts of the body, particularly in animals with amorphous body shapes, such as hydra[53]. One approach to capturing the full shape information of animals is to fit articulated 3D models of animals to new images[39,40,54]. This model-based technique can be robust and may require relatively little training data, but comes at the cost of professional 3D computer-aided design (CAD) expertise to design and articulate ('rig') models for new animal body types, and it would not be robust to large deformations such as in experiments that employ amputations of body parts. A more general approach is to explicitly fit a deformable surface to capture the

detailed shape of animals within images; although this is an active area of research in computer vision, early results hold promise[55-57] for development of general-purpose tools to enable the routine use of animal shape estimation for behavioral quantification.

Multi-animal pose tracking.

The level of description afforded by pose estimation is uniquely advantageous when quantifying social behaviors, as relative features such as inter-body-part distances and orientations can be used to detect directed interactions between animals (Fig. 1d). Just as in multi-animal centroid and ellipse tracking, however, extending pose estimation to multiple animals introduces new technical challenges. First, part association: dealing with multiple animals with the same body plan means that sets of detected landmarks must be correctly assigned to each animal. Second, identity assignment: detections in one frame must be correctly associated with detections belonging to the same animal in subsequent frames. Approaches to multi-instance pose estimation (in both humans and animals) can generally be categorized as either ‘top-down’, in which the animals are first detected (for example, by finding their centroids) and then their body parts are located within a cropped image of the animal, or ‘bottom-up’, in which all body parts first located and then grouped by animal.

Top-down pose estimation systems (Fig. 2c) solve the part-association problem implicitly by using the location of image features relative to the center of the crop. In this approach individual animals are first detected within the frame, such as by standard centroid detection methods (see “Animals, centroids, ellipses and identities” section above) or by a neural network trained to generate region proposals. These regions are cropped such that the animal is centered within the image. Given these crops, the neural network responsible for part localization is trained to predict confidence maps with a single peak, just as in the single-instance case, even if body parts of other animals are present within the crop.

In contrast, bottom-up pose estimation systems (Fig. 2d) encode all instances of each body part in the same set of confidence maps and encode their connectivity or grouping separately. A commonly used representation of the connectivity between body parts are part affinity fields[58], which are composed of vectors whose orientation follow the direction of the animal’s skeleton within the image. A grouping procedure uses the similarity between the line integral of part affinity field vectors between body parts and the line segment between the two points as a scoring function for grouping pairs of body part detections.

While there is a variety of theoretical trade-offs between the two approaches, empirical studies indicate that selecting the appropriate one may depend on features specific to the dataset, such as the morphology of the animals and the relative scale of their image features[31]. See Box 1 for more details on these and other considerations for practitioners.

In the multi-animal context, the problem of pose estimation is naturally promoted to that of pose tracking due to the second problem: identity assignment. The primary challenge in identity assignment with multi-animal pose tracking, as opposed to multi-animal centroid tracking, is the considerably increased manual annotation requirements of labeling consecutive frames with both pose and identity. In lieu of labor-intensive labeling, the same solutions employed for multi-object centroid tracking can address this problem through

conventional motion models (see “Animal centroids, ellipses and identities” above) to track the centroid[59] or collections of keypoints[60,61]. More sophisticated approaches that rely on identity and pose annotation in consecutive frames may yield considerable improvements for animal pose tracking by leveraging temporal information to perform top-down detection within clips rather than single images[62]. In the bottom-up approach, however, the representations used for part association must be explicitly extended to the temporal dimension, such as in temporal associative embeddings[63] or spatiotemporal affinity fields[64], but they provide the same benefits as the single-image bottom-up approaches.

Quantifying the dynamics of behavior

Behavior is a dynamic phenomenon that involves changes to an animal’s pose over time. Unlike the tracking of body parts, quantification of this temporal structure is a fundamentally difficult problem without a clear ground truth. It is often assumed that behavior can be described as a sequence of discrete behavioral states, such as ‘walking’ or ‘grooming’. The techniques discussed below use advances in machine learning to classify these states from video data or features derived from tracking (Box 2). This type of behavioral quantification can facilitate comparison between instances of individual behaviors (for example, in response to specific sensory inputs or across experimental conditions) and generate hypotheses about the neural circuitry that gives rise to them (for example, by demarcating event boundaries or timescales of computation).

Animal behavior, as defined by humans.

The simplest way to define a behavior is by defining a fixed set of rules that describe the criteria that must be met to determine its occurrence at a given instant. These can be as simple as classifying instances when the animal’s centroid is moving at a speed greater than a minimum threshold as ‘locomotion’, but can quickly become complex when establishing detailed inclusion and exclusion criteria based on fine descriptions of postural features[9]. Although easy to evaluate and interpret, fixed rules may fail to capture the full variability of behaviors that can be flexibly expressed, particularly when subject to experimental manipulations that may alter the statistics of the features used in the classification criteria[65].

A common approach that strikes a balance between human definitions and computer-aided classification is to leverage supervised machine learning. Given user-provided examples of times when particular behaviors are (or are not) occurring, these methods derive classification criteria using specific features (for example, body-part positions or speeds) extracted from the raw data (Fig. 3b). Popular toolkits use decision trees (or random forest ensembles)[66-68] to learn potentially complex or abstract classifiers from animal tracking features. These methods leverage data to avoid the tedious and potentially flawed manual design of classification criteria, in addition to providing measures of robustness to overfitting through standard statistical techniques such as cross-validation.

Though these methods can achieve high accuracy, they often rely on user-defined features derived from the input data, such as numerical derivatives[66], generic dimensionality reduction[67], or exhaustive combinations of relative features[68]. These may fail to capture more complex relationships in higher-dimensional descriptions (for example, multi-animal

poses) or higher-order temporal patterns. A promising direction for more robust general-purpose supervised behavioral classification in animals is to adopt state-of-the-art techniques from human action recognition (i.e., human 'behaviors'), in which deep-learning-based systems have excelled at data-driven feature extraction from kinematic features[69] (Box 2).

Animal behavior, as defined by the data.

Supervised behavior classification, though more robust than classification using hand-crafted criteria, still suffers from the bias of subjective human annotation. Studies demonstrating the large degree of disagreement even among experts with clear guidelines for when to annotate a behavior reveal the shortcomings of depending on human definitions of a behavior[70-72]. An alternative approach is to ask a computer to learn patterns from the data alone using unsupervised classification methods. In these techniques, the statistics of the behavioral time series themselves are used to determine the criteria used to classify a given time point into a distinct 'cluster' or 'state' The common assumption across these methods is that data belonging to the same state exhibit similar, stereotyped dynamics given some measure of similarity[73,74].

The simplest form of unsupervised classification involves clustering (Fig. 3c). In the typical clustering workflow, dimensionality reduction and feature extraction (for example, using principal component analysis, spectral estimation and manifold embedding techniques such as *t*-stochastic neighbor embedding (t-SNE)[75]) are applied to the raw data (which can be videos or pose data derived from videos). The similarity between behaviors at two points in time is then quantified using a similarity metric between the two feature vectors (for example, using the Euclidean distance or a probabilistic measure of similarity such as the Kullback–Leibler divergence). Given a set of time points and the similarity between them, clustering algorithms attempt to group the points into discrete sets in which each point is more similar to the other members of its set than it is to points outside the set. The simplest algorithms, such as *k*-means and Gaussian mixture models[76], have been used successfully to categorize behaviors, but they require the researcher to specify the number of clusters a priori (though this can be estimated using statistical testing). Density-based clustering, using algorithms such as the watershed transform[75], avoid having the user specify the exact number of behaviors to be found by identifying peaks in the estimated distribution of time points in the space of extracted features. This approach, first introduced in MotionMapper[75], is widely used and has been effective at clustering behavioral dynamics across species and input representation types (Fig. 3e)[32,45,46,75,77-80].

Interpretation of the behavioral clusters will depend on the application. These clusters describe groupings of points that are self-similar, but do not directly describe what precisely distinguishes one cluster from another. The first pass approach to interpreting behavioral clusters relies on qualitative observation of raw data exemplars from each group, such as video clips[75]. Visual inspection may reveal that one cluster corresponds to locomotor behavior and another to grooming, but may fail to provide an explanation for why one cluster of locomotor behavior differs from a separate locomotor cluster. The next step in interpreting these clusters is to compute the empirical feature distributions of the data that falls within the clusters. These may reveal that one form of locomotion is distinct from

another based on the peak frequency of limb oscillations[32], but may be more difficult to interpret when differences are small or the input data is too high-dimensional to easily interpret differences.

Although clustering is an effective method when little is known about the structure of the behavioral dynamics, more sophisticated approaches afford the ability to explicitly model the characteristics that define the representation of the behavioral dynamics (Fig. 3d). These have the advantage of being potentially more interpretable through direct examination of the model parameters, and some have the added benefit of being able to generate new examples sampled from the model rather than relying on exemplars in the data. One such class of methods that build on probabilistic graphical models are termed state-space models. Rather than attempting to divide the data based on its similarity, these models assume that there exist unobservable (hidden) discrete 'states' that parametrize the processes underlying the data. MoSeq[81] uses autoregressive generative processes with a sticky hidden Markov model to identify the hidden states and the transition structure between states. This form of modeling can also be combined with simpler generative processes like a multivariate Gaussian distribution[49]. Other approaches leverage non-parametric Bayesian statistics to model recurrent dependencies in the transitions between different linear dynamical systems, combining the expressivity of graphical models for describing sequence structure with the algebraic interpretability of a linear dynamical system[82]. An alternative approach to leveraging linear dynamical systems uses an adaptive segmentation algorithm based on statistical model testing rather than an explicit model of transitions between states[83].

Behavioral programs operate at many timescales and can be described at different levels of abstraction, all of which could potentially be useful representations of underlying neural computations. For example, it may be desirable to describe the fast timescale kinematics of locomotion while simultaneously representing the longer timescale motivational state of the animal that sets up its navigational goal. Hierarchical clustering can capture structure in behavioral dynamics in a similar way to simple clustering, with the added benefit of decomposing higher-order behavioral clusters into progressively finer-grained subtypes[84]. Information theoretic techniques for grouping behaviors based on the structure of state transitions have shown a link between a hierarchical temporal organization of the behaviors and the similarity between behaviors[85]. Explicitly hierarchical dynamical models such as the hierarchical hidden Markov model[86] or adaptive segmentation algorithm[83] organize behavioral states in a hierarchy based on the structure of their generating processes, affording additional interpretability to the multiscale representations. Assuming a flat discretization of behavioral states, higher-order sequence models such as those used in bioinformatic algorithms to discover motifs in genetic data[87] or formal grammars used to model natural language[88] can be co-opted to describe behavioral state sequences.

Though these methods address the problems of representing behavior across multiple timescales, they do not effectively provide a solution to the problem of simultaneously occurring behaviors such as walking and sniffing. Though recognizing parallel behaviors is possible through supervised classification by simply using multiple independent classifiers, an unsupervised solution has not yet been proposed. Future work in this domain may be able

to achieve this by taking into account that parallel dynamical processes involve different appendages, for example.

Adding continuous structure to discrete representations.

Although the typical behavior map presumes strictly discrete boundaries between distinct behaviors, the execution of motor commands is ultimately expressed through continuous motion[73]. For example, while walking and jogging may require distinct motor programs, slow walking and fast walking may differ only in the frequency of the stride cycle, smoothly transitioning through 'moderate walking'. Ultimately, a complete representation of behavior would include both discrete boundaries between behaviors and the continuous variation within them.

Dimensionality reduction methods such as principal component analysis are an effective means of discovering continuous patterning within a behavior, as they compress behavioral dynamics into fewer dimensions, along which the dynamics smoothly vary. This approach has been used to describe worm postural dynamics, revealing an oscillator structure during locomotion[89], as well as to describe continuous dynamics of postural trajectories within zebrafish locomotion[78] and hunting[90] behaviors. More complex kinematics that are not as easily reduced can be captured through nonlinear manifold embedding algorithms and have been employed, for example, to reveal complex periodic structure in fruit fly locomotion (Fig. 3f)[91] (akin to the worm oscillator).

Recent methods have begun to employ neural networks as a means of extracting continuous dynamic representations from behavioral time series. These methods afford greater flexibility by enabling robust feature extraction while simultaneously inferring discrete clusters in tandem with continuous representations[92,93] or by imposing variational constraints on the distribution of the representations, thereby encouraging more interpretable quantities to be captured in the manifold of dynamics[94,95].

Linking brain activity and behavior

A core application of the methods described above is to use descriptions of behavior to understand the neural activity that generates it. As we have discussed above, tools for tracking movement quantify the motor output of the brain, from coarse centroid tracking that describes spatial navigation to fine-grained pose estimation that captures the dynamics of muscle control (Fig. 1). Since these tools can locate the sensory organs of the animal, they also make it possible to reconstruct the sensory inputs animals receive. For example, the visual field of an animal can be estimated from the position of objects in its environment relative to its eyes (Fig. 4a). This is particularly advantageous in freely-moving behavioral setups, which sacrifice the ability to control (and therefore precisely know) the visual stimuli in a given psychophysics or virtual reality experiment[96-99]. Stimuli of other sensory modalities, such as mechanosensation, can also be estimated from videography, while others such as acoustic stimuli will require different instrumentation and methods for feature extraction (Box 3).

As tools to measure behavioral features improve, so does the resolution of the estimated representations of the inputs and outputs to the nervous system. Here we highlight the major classes of approaches that have successfully leveraged behavioral quantification to dissect brain function.

Peri-behavior time histograms.

Analogously to how peristimulus time histograms enable circuit interrogation by aligning the activity of neurons relative to onset or offset of stimuli, a major approach to linking neural function to behavior is to describe the distribution of behavioral quantities surrounding neural events. For example, manipulation of neural activity through genetic tools has enabled brain-wide screens that associate activation of precise subsets of neurons with the animal's entire behavioral repertoire[84,100,101].

While neuromodulation experiments provide precise temporal control over stimulation, techniques for awake and freely-moving in vivo recording can be used to align neural activity to more naturalistic and spontaneous behaviors. Combined with tracking and quantification of dynamics, this approach has been successfully used to discover neural correlates of a number of behavioral features described in this review. Instantaneous animal pose has been found to be represented across cortical regions in freely-moving rodents[102]. Discrete behavioral motifs identified using state-space models such as MoSeq[81], as well as their sequences, have been associated with neural activity in the striatum, revealing a code for action selection[103]. Higher-order behavioral states (hierarchies), such as the exploration-versus-exploitation dichotomy in zebrafish hunting behavior, have been associated with internal neural states through the use of whole-brain imaging and pose estimation (Fig. 4b)[104]. Multi-timescale behavioral structures have been found to correlate with a hierarchy of neural dynamics in freely moving worms, connecting population-level codes with fast timescale motor control[105].

Finally, simultaneous recording of neural activity across multiple animals has recently been used to identify neural correlates of social behavioral features in both bats and mice[106,107]. By aligning neural activity to social behavior quantified from multi-animal tracking, neural representations were discovered that encode both fast timescale features, such as the current and future behavior of the animal's social partner, as well as higher-order cognitive features, such as their social hierarchy. These codes appear to be synchronized across animals, revealing a potential mechanistic basis for coordination of social behaviors, reflecting previous reports of synchronization identified from behavioral data alone[108].

Models of sensorimotor transformations.

Given representations of sensory inputs and motor outputs, another way to link behavior to neural activity is through explicit modeling of this sensorimotor transformation. Modeling the transformation from sensory input to motor output can recover stimulus filters[109] and even infer internal states[110]. These models attempt to fit simple but easily interpretable transformations between sensory input and behavioral output (Fig. 4c). This level of modeling has the benefit of being a general-purpose approach to discovering the relative importance of different sensory features and their timescales.

Approaches that more comprehensively model the internal computations of the sensorimotor transformation afford the ability to incorporate knowledge about the underlying biological structure of the computations at the cost of increased model complexity. By simulating known neural connectivity and their biophysics, these forms of models enable in silico experimentation[111,112]. For example, performing ablations of specific model neurons and observing the changes in behavioral responses can provide insights into the computations being performed, which can be validated with analogous experiments in vivo.

Designing network models becomes increasingly difficult as the behaviors they attempt to predict become more detailed and less constrained, as is the case in freely moving and naturally behaving animals. An emerging approach to address this is to use artificial neural networks (ANNs) that can learn to perform the sensorimotor transformations while abstracting away details about the underlying biological neural networks. This form of modeling naturally leads to agent-based models, i.e., models that can perceive and respond to their environment. If the environment can be fully simulated, these agents are able to be trained without any data by providing them with a behavioral task and constraining their kinematics to realistic biomechanics. Recently, it was demonstrated that an agent-based model of rodents trained to perform classical cognitive–behavioral tasks, such as the two-tap task or navigating a Y-maze, are not only able to attain comparable performance to real animals, but also learn to compute internal representations of motor planning and control from sensory inputs (Fig. 4d)[113,114].

Finally, an approach called imitation learning combines the ability of ANNs to efficiently learn complex transformations with the ability to impose biological fidelity derived from empirical data. These are constructed as agent-based models, but rather than being trained in simulation, they instead learn from behavioral data to predict motor outputs (for example, changes in pose) from reconstructed sensory inputs (for example, visual field-of-view). These have been applied to fruit fly data and shown to be capable of learning high-level representations of the computations underlying unconstrained behavior[115,116]. ANNs can also be constructed with architectures based on biological neuroanatomy to further constrain the types of representations it learns (a feature that is particularly useful in light of recent advances in connectomics[117]). Recent work has shown that the computations learned by these models exhibit a remarkable degree of similarity to physiology, even when trained on behavioral data alone[118].

Conclusion

In this Review we have detailed the existing and emerging methods in quantifying animal behavior to better understand the brain. From tracking to dynamics, it is clear that advances in deep learning and computer vision have revolutionized our ability to extract increasingly detailed descriptions of behavior. Further, as modeling frameworks continue to evolve, so will our ability to use behavior as a means of comparing neural dynamics and structure across diverse animals and experimental paradigms, toward developing holistic theories of brain function. We believe that these advances position behavioral quantification as a core instrument in the neuroscience toolbox, essential to the quest of understanding the brain.

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Box 1 |

Choosing a tracking system

Selecting the appropriate behavioral quantification tool is an important decision that should be made at the experimental design stage. Some types of experiments may preclude some forms of tracking altogether, for example, multi-camera setups. Constraints on the data acquisition, such as resolution, illumination and arena size should be balanced with the desire to get as much information out of the behavioral recordings as possible.

The primary consideration is the level of description necessary for capturing the behavioral signals that best test a given hypothesis. Centroid and orientation tracking may suffice, for example, to obtain coarse locomotor statistics, information about navigational strategies, place preference or characteristics of some social interactions. For single animal tracking, a classical tracker such as Ctrax[1] or ToxTrac[6] may be a practical solution because additional labeling is not required. If imaging conditions are not optimal, for example, due to low illumination or complex backgrounds, it may be preferable to use a deep-learning-based solution even for centroid tracking[2]. When tracking multiple animals, addressing the identity assignment problem will be the primary challenge in ensuring the quality of the tracking. If the animals frequently occlude one another or disappear from the field of view, it may be necessary to employ a deep-learning-based multi-animal tracker such as idtracker.ai (https://idtrackerai.readthedocs.io/en/latest/) to minimize identity switches[14].

If a pose estimation system is optimal, it is important to consider the resolution required to capture the smallest feature of an animal. For insects with thin appendages, high spatial resolution is required, which must be balanced with the size of the field of view; for rodents, a lower resolution may suffice, but note that some body parts like the tail may require additional considerations if imaging against a low-contrast background. Next, consider the viewpoint of the camera. For ideal 2D pose estimation, movements out of the image plane should be minimized, which is most commonly achieved by carefully aligned cameras either overhead or from below a transparent floor of an elevated arena. For immobilized animals, higher resolution may be more easily achieved, but it may be difficult to get a viewpoint where movements are within the image plane. Finally, ensure that the signal-to-noise ratio of the images is maximized by providing sufficient, constant and uniform illumination (potentially in infrared to reduce corruption by room light), focused camera optics to reduce spatial blur and low camera exposure time to reduce temporal blur.

In the majority of cases, any of the mature animal-pose-estimation frameworks (for example,DeepLabCut[26], SLEAP[31] and DeepPoseKit[33]) should produce satisfactory results and can be configured to achieve similar speed and accuracy. All of these frameworks provide a shared base set of features: graphical user interfaces (GUI) for labeling and inspecting results, usage documentation with example data, active learning, multiple neural network architectures with optional pretraining for transfer learning, and Python-based implementations. Their differences derive primarily from their capacity for

customization and extension for specialized applications. DeepLabCut has a large user base that has adapted it to a diverse range of specialized applications; DeepPoseKit provides a minimalist implementation of the core functionality required to build a pose estimation system; and SLEAP provides a flexible codebase, developed with a standardized code style and documentation formats, continuous integration, and native multiplatform support and modular application programming interfaces to facilitate extensibility and customization for specialized applications.

For multi-animal tracking, all three frameworks support top-down approaches; a recent update to DeepLabCut provides experimental support for bottom-up, while SLEAP offers native support for both. MARS[121] provides an alternative solution for tracking rodents with different fur colors and is integrated with tools for advanced downstream analyses. The SLEAP GUI offers functionality for proofreading tracking, as it was designed with special emphasis on multi-animal pose tracking.

When extending to 3D, it is important to first consider how many cameras may be necessary and to ensure that they are synchronized and calibrated. For larger animals, such as non-human primates that can occupy large spaces, OpenMonkeyStudio[46] describes a state-of-the-art system using an array of 62 cameras. For smaller animals, DeepFly3D[45] and Anipose[48] provide flexible general-purpose toolkits to deal with calibration and triangulation of 2D landmarks. At the cutting edge, the 3D-from-2D pose estimation framework LiftPose3D[52] may be suitable for settings in which multicamera triangulation is not possible.

Box 2 |

Choosing a behavioral feature representation

Tracking data, whether at the resolution of centroids or pose, is ultimately represented as a set of coordinates in space, typically in units of pixels in the reference frame of the camera. Converting these into a meaningful representation amenable to interpretation and analysis requires the choice of a feature representation that can be derived from the raw coordinates. This step precedes the analysis of dynamics, and most methods for quantifying dynamical structure are agnostic to the specific behavioral feature (Fig. 3a) on which they operate.

A simple and effective approach when dealing with pose is to adjust the coordinates to an egocentric representation, which can be achieved by centering the coordinates such that the origin is at a fixed anatomical position (e.g., thorax in insects, spine base in rodents or centroid more generally). With a second reference point, such as the head or neck, the remaining points can then be rotated such that the animal is always facing in a consistent orientation, enabling a fully egocentric reference frame for the pose coordinates[32]. In 3D, a third point of reference is required to ensure this rotational invariance, and its selection depends on the available landmarks and the animal's anatomy[46,50,80]. Once transformed to egocentric coordinates, displacements can be interpreted in relation to the body, and their occupancy reflects body configuration independent of global position or orientation.

From coordinates, a number of hand-crafted features can easily be derived, such as velocities, distances and orientations, both between body parts and in relation to other animals or objects in the environment. A number of these have been previously described for various species and experimental contexts[1,9,50]. Some frameworks facilitate the computation of exhaustive sets of combinations of pairwise features, such as all-to-all distances, angles and velocities[66,68,79]; these can provide a superset of behavioral features agnostic to their semantic interpretation, but much less precise than deliberately designed features. For behaviors involving highly periodic movements, such as locomotion or grooming, spectral features can provide an effective representation by expressing the behavioral feature in time–frequency space[32,75,122].

An alternative approach that may be better suited to capturing the correlation structure between postural coordinates (or even between pairwise features) is to employ dimensionality-reduction techniques. Principal component analysis (PCA), for example, is often used to describe body shape in few dimensions, as it naturally takes advantage of the high correlation between articulated body segments in the kinematic tree of animal skeletons. This is particularly useful for animals such as worms[89] and fish[78] that have many degrees of articulation along a centerline. More complex correlation structure may be analogously identified using nonlinear dimensionality reduction on the coordinates or pairwise features, such as variational auto-encoders[95].

Some dynamics may not be effectively captured by tracking, particularly for non-rigid and 'blobby' body parts, such as subtle facial movements[44]. For these, traditional methods for extracting behavioral features operate directly on the images, typically by performing dimensionality reduction on egocentrically aligned crops of the animals[75,81]

or on regions of interest in immobilized animals[44,123,124]. In one notable application, a facial emotion recognition technique was applied to mouse faces to extract estimates of their emotional state from facial image features directly[125]. A recently described database of animal faces may be of particular interest for future work on general purpose animal face features[13].

Finally, while many approaches to quantifying dynamics may be effective at capturing the structure and describing the correlation between semantically meaningful behavioral features (body kinematics), for the task of directly classifying behaviors from video frames, methods that capture general image motion may improve accuracy over pose-based features. In the human action recognition field, while some methods do operate on pose[126], many opt instead to use deep neural networks to learn to extract motion features by training them to classify actions directly from raw video frames[127]. In animals, ABRS[128] and DeepEthogram[129] describe systems for classifying behaviors directly from video by using optical flow features and other learned image features. These techniques alone, however, do not lend themselves directly to understanding the neural control of behavior, which necessarily involves motion and actuation of specific body parts, but can be useful tools to predict the occurrence of well-defined behaviors.

Box 3 |

Quantifying acoustic behaviors

Not all motor output can be quantified using conventional videography. In particular, vocalizations and other forms of acoustic communication are either not clearly visible or are produced at frequencies much higher than the frame rates of standard video cameras. Acoustic behaviors, however, can be easily measured using microphones placed in proximity of interacting animals. Similar to the challenges described for tracking and segmenting behaviors from video, the primary challenge in quantifying acoustic behaviors is detecting and classifying individual acoustic events, such as courtship song syllables.

Classical approaches rely on signal processing techniques to filter and extract acoustic events based on spectral and temporal features of animal songs. These have been used with much success to detect, for example, *Drosophila* courtship song[130], zebra finch song[131] and mouse vocalizations[132,133]. The automated detection of fly song has facilitated analysis of large behavioral datasets linking visual feedback cues (the moving female fly) to the dynamic patterning of male song, which would not have been possible otherwise[134]. Newer approaches have been developed to ease the difficulty of hand-crafting specialized signal-processing pipelines by leveraging deep learning to learn from user annotations[135-137]. These tools are crucial in improving the robustness of acoustic behavior detection to new experimental conditions with different noise properties.

However, these methods are limited by a priori knowledge of the syllables or modes that comprise song. A parallel approach to the supervised techniques leverages unsupervised learning to discover new acoustic behavioral subtypes, analogous to the unsupervised approaches for tracking. Manifold embedding has enabled the discovery of previously undiscovered fruit fly song types[138] and immature songbird sequences[139], as well as mapping of less-stereotyped mouse vocalizations[140-142].

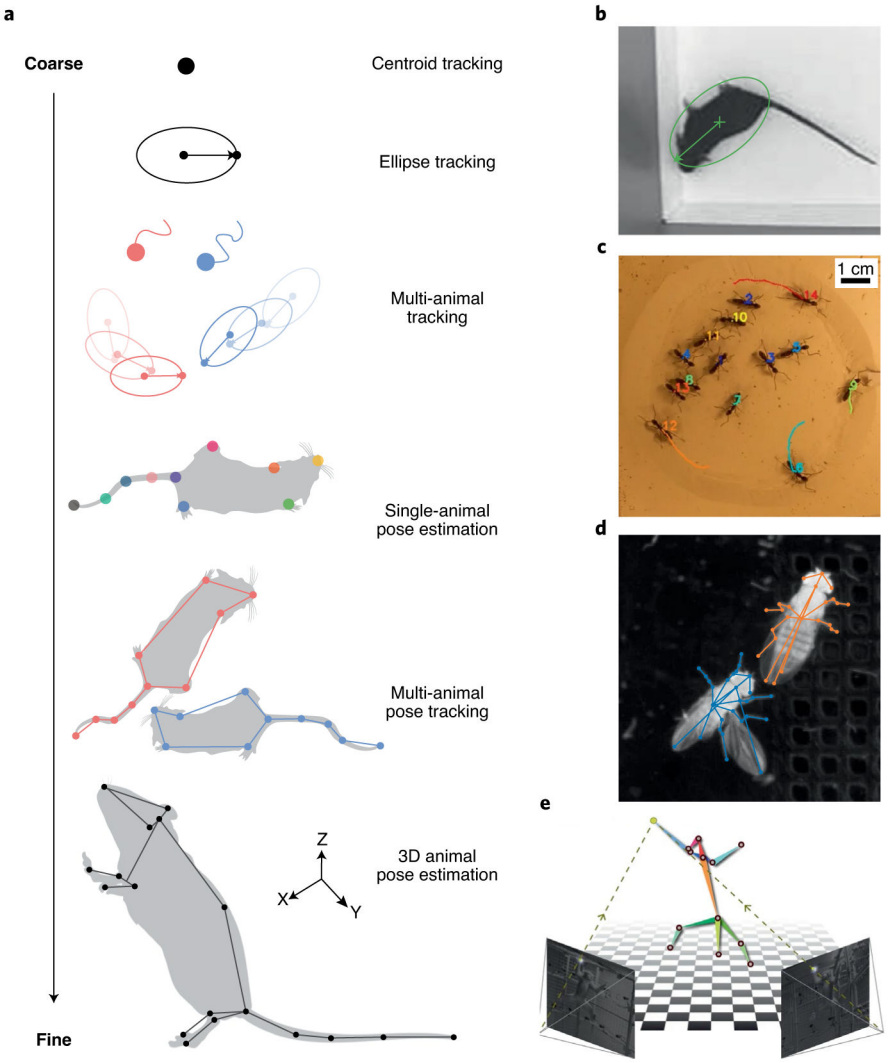

Fig. 1 | Tracking, from coarse to fine.

a, Representations extracted by different forms of tracking, ranging from a single point to full 3D pose. **b**, Single mouse tracked with ellipse and orientation[2]. **c**, Multi-animal tracking of ants with reliable identity assignment[14]. **d**, Multi-animal pose tracking of a pair of socially interacting fruit flies[31]. **e**, 3D pose estimation of a monkey from multiple camera views[46]. Images in **a** adapted with permission from SciDraw.io[119] or created with BioRender.com[120]; in **b** from ref. [2], Nature Publishing Group; in **c** from ref. [14], Nature Publishing Group; in **e** from ref. [46], Nature Publishing Group.

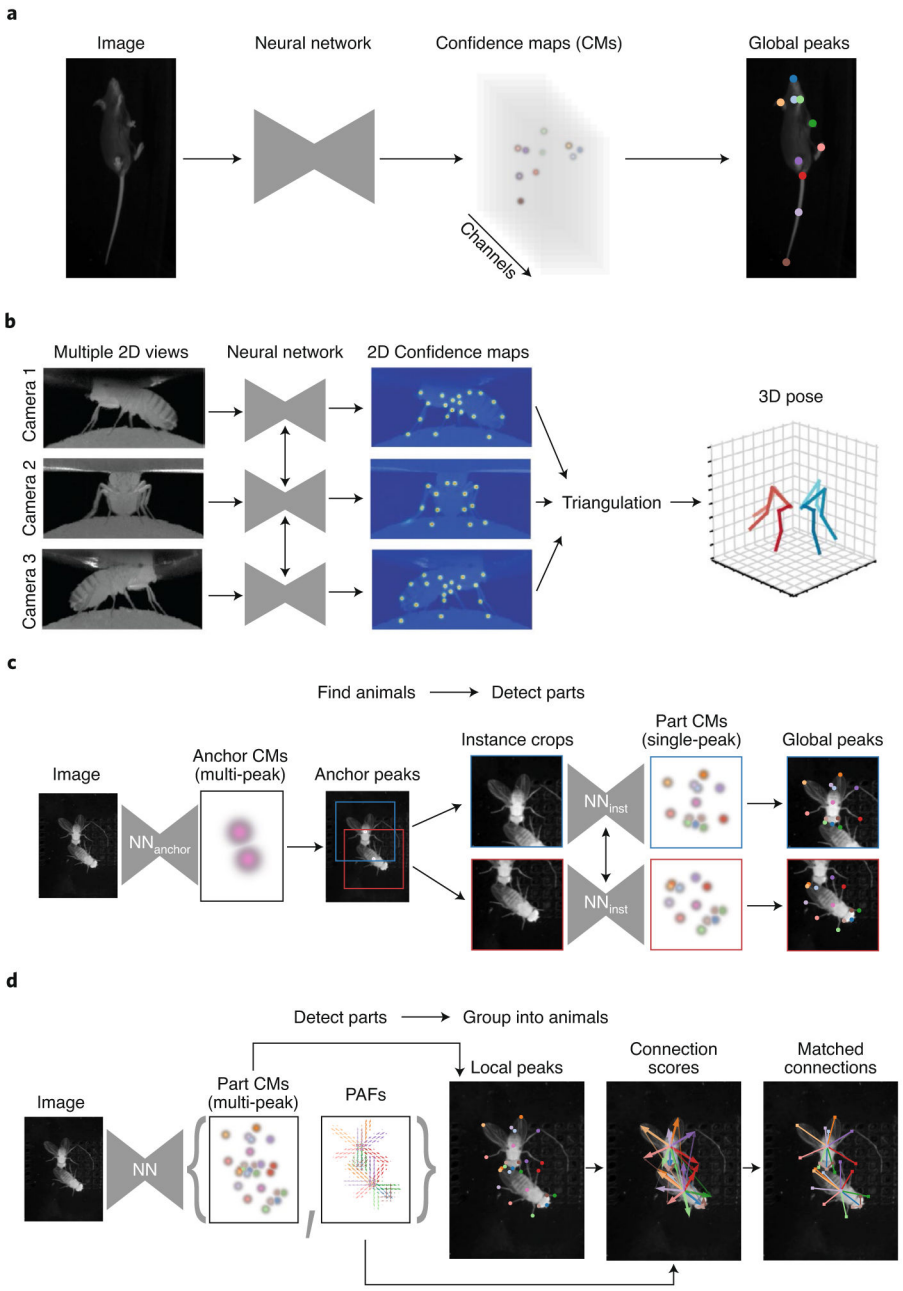

Fig. 2 |. Anatomy of pose estimation systems.

a, In single-instance pose estimation[32], each body-part type is encoded as a confidence map that is predicted by a convolutional neural network given an image as input (left). The network is trained to predict confidence maps (CMs) with only a single peak per channel (middle), enabling the coordinates to be decoded by finding the global peak in each channel of the confidence maps (right). **b**, The 3D pose estimation system employed in DeepFly3D (ref. [45]). These systems may use a single neural network (left) to predict 2D confidence maps (middle) for each independent view. These landmarks are then triangulated based on the geometry of the cameras and the consistency of the 2D predictions (right). **c**, A top-down multi-animal pose estimation system employed in SLEAP[31]. All instances of an ‘anchor

part' are first located by a CNN trained to predict anchor part confidence maps (left). The image is cropped around each anchor (middle) and a CNN trained to predict all part confidence maps is applied to each crop (right). **d**, A bottom-up multi-animal pose estimation system employed in SLEAP[31]. A single neural network detects all instances of all body parts and simultaneously predicts part affinity fields (PAFs)[58], a representation of the connectivity between body parts (left). The grouping of body parts to the appropriate animals via a matching procedure uses the PAFs to score candidate connections (right). Images in **b** adapted with permission from ref. [45], eLife.

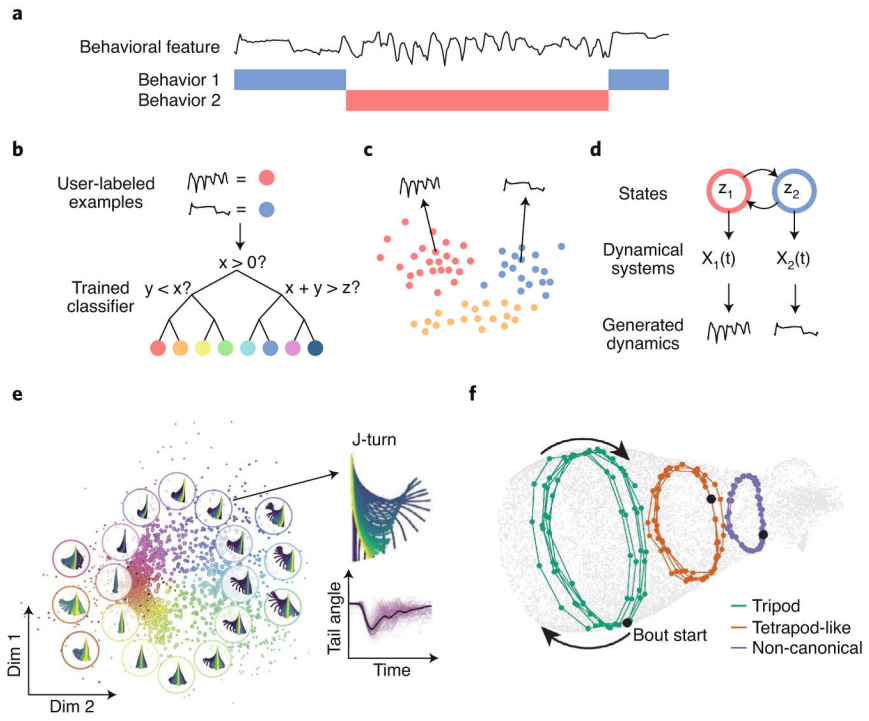

Fig. 3 |. Quantifying behavioral dynamics.

a, A snippet of behavioral dynamics during which two types of behavior occur. Behavior 1 (blue) is characterized by slow, step-like dynamics, whereas behavior 2 (red) is characterized by fast oscillations with sharp peaks. **b**, In supervised classification, a human first annotates examples of each type of behavior (top). A classifier such as a decision tree will learn criteria to classify new data based on the examples provided (bottom). **c**, In clustering, examples are grouped by their similarity rather than human annotations. The resulting clusters correspond to distinct behaviors. Points represent short windows of time reduced to two dimensions for visualization. **d**, In dynamical models, behaviors are represented by states that the model is permitted to transition between (top). These states parametrize the models that generate the state-specific dynamics (middle). The observed dynamics are assumed to come from the model that is most likely to generate similar dynamics (bottom). **e**, Clusters of zebrafish hunting behaviors based on the similarity of their postural trajectories (depicted within the bubbles)[90]. Points correspond to individual bouts after applying nonlinear dimensionality reduction to the zebrafish pose trajectories as a preprocessing step. **f**, Manifold embedding of fruit fly gait with the cyclical continuous structure of different gait modes highlighted[91]. Note that although this representation does not capture cluster-like structure, it does identify both the phase of gait strides (circles) and a continuous axis of variation that transitions smoothly from slow (non-canonical) to fast (tripod) locomotion. Images in **e** adapted with permission from ref. [90], Cell Press; in **f** from ref. [91], eLife.

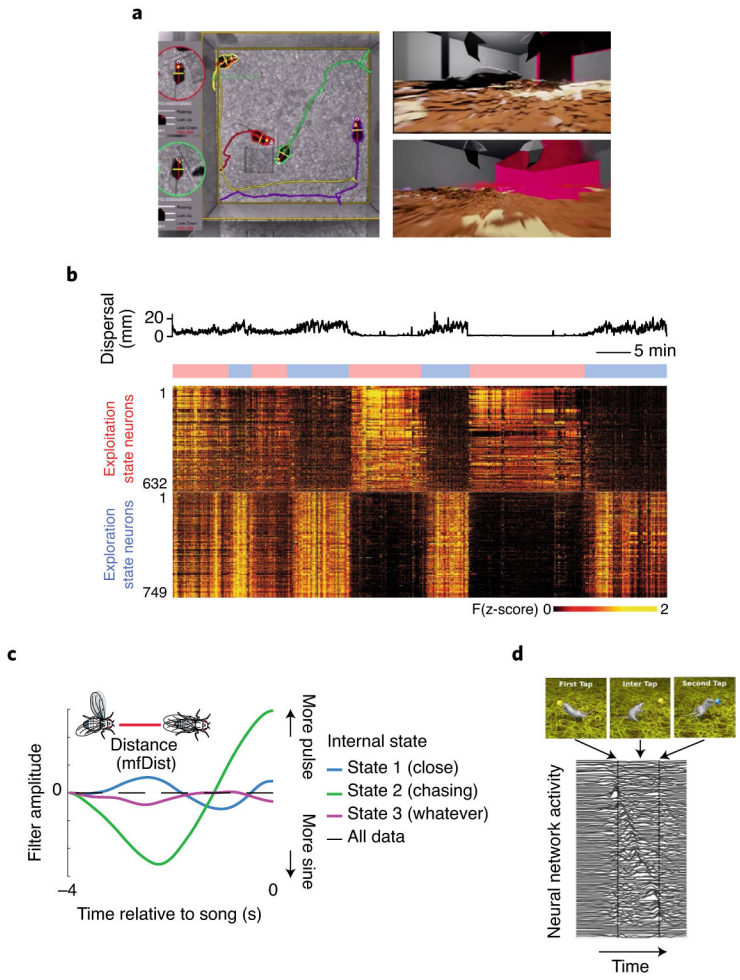

Fig. 4 |. Approaches to linking brain to behavior.

a, Tracking centroids and orientations of animals enables the reconstruction of their sensory inputs by simulating a first-person view of their environment[9]. **b**, Zebrafish tracking and whole-brain imaging during hunting behavior shows how representations of internal states (exploration vs exploitation) are revealed when aligning to behavioral data[104]. **c**, Model of courting flies captures the shape and timescale of visual sensory inputs (mfDist; distance between animals) that predicts behavioral output (courtship song) modulated by internal state[110]. **d**, An ANN can learn to control a simulated rat via motor commands to perform a tapping task. Top: rendering of the simulated rat performing the task. Bottom: latent representations learned by the ANN that is used to drive the behavior[113]. Images in **a** adapted with permission from ref. [9], Nature Publishing Group; in **b** from ref. [104], Nature Publishing Group; in **c** from ref. [110], Nature Publishing Group; in **d** from ref. [113], arXiv.